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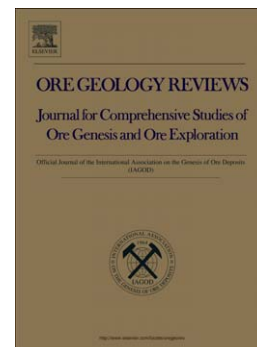
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The Goukoto Au deposit, West Africa: constraints on ore genesis and volatile sources from petrological, fluid inclusion and stable isotope data

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Abstract

The Loulo-Goukoto complex in the Kédougou-Kéniéba Inlier hosts three multi-million ounce orogenic gold deposits, situated along the Senegal-Mali Shear Zone. This west Malian gold belt represents the largest West African orogenic gold district outside Ghana. The Goukoto deposit is hosted to the south of the Gara and Yalea gold mines in the Kofi Series metasedimentary rocks. The ore body is structurally controlled and is characterised by sodic and phyllic alteration, As- and Fe-rich ore assemblages, with abundant magnetite, and overall enrichment in Fe-As-Cu-Au-Ag-W-Ni-Co-REE + minor Te-Pb-Se-Cd. Fluid inclusion analysis indicates that the deposit formed at P-T conditions of approximately 1.4 kbar and 340 °C and that two end member fluids were involved in mineralisation: (1) a moderate temperature (315-340 °C), low salinity (<10 wt. % NaCl equiv.), low density ($\leq 1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}-\text{H}_2\text{S}\pm\text{N}_2-\text{CH}_4$ fluid; (2) a high temperature (up to 445 °C), hypersaline ($\sim 40 \text{ wt. \% NaCl equiv.}$), high density ($\sim 1.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}\pm\text{FeCl}_2$ fluid. Partial mixing of these fluids within the Jog Zone at Goukoto enhanced phase separation in the aqueo-carbonic fluid and acted as a precipitation mechanism for Au. These findings demonstrate the widespread, if heterogeneously distributed, nature of fluid mixing as an ore forming process in the Loulo-Goukoto complex, operating over at least a 30 km strike length of the shear zone. Stable isotope analyses of ore components at Goukoto indicate a dominant metamorphic source for H_2O , H_2S and CO_2 , and by extension Au. It thus can be reasoned that both the aqueo-carbonic and the hypersaline fluid at Goukoto are of metamorphic origin and that the high levels of salinity in the brine are likely derived from evaporite dissolution.

Key Words

Goukoto gold deposit; Fluid inclusions; stable isotopes; orogenic gold mineralisation; Birimian orogeny ; Senegal-Mali Shear Zone

1. Introduction

The Loulo-Goukoto complex in Western Mali is situated along the Senegal-Mali Shear Zone and includes the Gara, Yalea and Goukoto deposits as well as numerous satellites. With the Loulo Mine (Gara and Yalea deposits) to the north, the Goukoto deposit is the third >3 Moz deposit to be discovered in the district since Gara in 1981. Goukoto has a current reserve of 3.2 Moz @ 4.4 g/t, which combined with the Loulo reserve of 4.9 Moz @ 4.6 g/t gives the complex an overall reserve of 7.8 Moz. The Goukoto discovery was announced in 2009 following an airborne electromagnetic survey of the region. Reconnaissance diamond drill holes intersected 46.6 m at 13.6 g/t, confirming Goukoto as a significant new discovery and mining commenced in 2011. The Loulo-Goukoto complex has produced over 3.5 Moz from open pit and underground resources, and has a current (2015) mining lifespan of 9 years at 660 Koz Au pa.

Lawrence et al., (2013a) detailed two separate end member styles of mineralisation for Au deposits at Loulo, encompassing Gara, Yalea, and numerous satellite deposits. Gara-style deposits feature: 1) pyrite as the dominant ore mineral; 2) tourmaline alteration and 3) REE-Ni-P-Zn-Se-Mo enrichment. Conversely Yalea-style ore bodies feature: 1) arsenopyrite as the dominant ore mineral; 2) albitisation and sericite-chlorite alteration assemblages and; 3) no enrichment in REE-Ni-P-Zn-Se-Mo. In addition, Lawrence (2013b) found that two distinct hydrothermal fluids were involved in mineralization at Loulo: 1) a high temperature, hypersaline aqueous fluid; and 2) a lower temperature, low salinity, CO₂-N₂-H₂S rich metamorphic fluid. The Gara deposit is interpreted to have formed as a result of partial mixing of these two fluids, whereas the Yalea deposit formed from unmixing of an immiscible, metamorphic sourced CO₂-rich fluid.

This paper will present new petrographic, fluid inclusion and stable isotope data from the Goukoto deposit with the aim of comparing mineralisation processes and styles with those at Loulo. We will demonstrate that Au precipitation was initiated through a combination of fluid immiscibility in an aqueous-carbonic fluid and partial mixing of that same fluid with a hypersaline brine, processes described at the Gara and Yalea deposits by Lawrence et al., (2013b). Furthermore, we will examine the sources of volatile components in the deposit with a suite of stable isotope analyses conducted on ore components.

2. Regional Geology

The geology of the Birimian of West Africa is well documented (Abouchami et al., 1990; Liegois et al., 1991; Milési et al., 1992; Feybesse and Milesi 1994; Feybesse et al., 2006). This consists of NNE trending volcanic belts or arcs separated by broad metasedimentary basins intruded by voluminous granitic batholiths, and extends from the Ashanti belt in Ghana in the south east to the Kédougou-Kéniéba Inlier in the North West (Figure 1A). These arcs and basins were accreted, deformed and metamorphosed (greenschist facies) during the Eburnean orogeny ~2.1 Ga (Oberthür et al., 1998; Allibone et al., 2002; Feybesse et al., 2006). The Eburnean comprises three distinct phases of deformation (Liegois et al., 1991; Ledru et al., 1991; Hirdes and Davis, 1992; Feybesse et al., 2006; Dabo and Aifa, 2010; Dabo and Aifa 2011). Initial NW-SE compression (D_1) generated a penetrative S_1 cleavage parallel to recumbent F_1 fold axes. Subsequent sinistral strike-slip deformation (D_2), which cross cut and refolded S_1 cleavages, lead to the development of crustal scale shears along terrane boundaries. The latest phase of deformation is a brittle dextral strike-slip reactivation (D_3). D_1 occurred diachronously from SE to NW, between 2170 to 2096 Ma (Feybesse and Milési, 1994), when D_2 deformation began, continuing until 1980 Ma (Feybesse et al., 2006). Liegois et al., (1991) suggest that D_3 began ~100Ma after D_2 .

The Loulo-Goukoto complex is the largest West African orogenic gold district outside Ghana, and is situated in the Kofi Series of the eastern Birimian Kédougou-Kéniéba Inlier (Figure 1B), which is bounded to the west by the Hercynian Mauritanide belt and unconformably overlain by flat lying Neoproterozoic sediments to the east. The inlier consists of two N- to NNE-trending greenstone belts, known as the Mako Series and Falémé Series, separated by two sedimentary basins; the Dialé-Daléma Series and the Kofi Series (Hirdes and Davis, 2002; Figure 1B). Loulo is situated within the West Mali gold belt, which stretches 180 km north-south along the Senegal border. Operational mines in the region include Gara and Yalea (at the Loulo Mine complex), Goukoto, Sadiola, Yatela, Tabakoto, and Segala. These deposits are structurally controlled by a major crustal-scale lineament known as the Senegal-Mali shear zone (SMSZ; Figure 1B and C).

The Kofi Series rocks comprised of immature detrital sedimentary (dominantly quartzo-feldspathic wackes) and carbonate rocks (marbles and marls), and breccias, intruded by minor mafic dykes and small intermediate to felsic stocks. Some metaquartzwacke horizons have been intensely tourmalinized and others albitised (Lawrence et al., 2013a). Several extensive bodies of hydrothermal albitite are located close to the Senegal-Mali Shear Zone (Figure 1C). Igneous rocks comprising dykes of dolerite to monzodiorite composition and small stocks of quartz-feldspar-phyric rhyolite intrude the Kofi Series. In addition two larger plutons of monzogranite composition, the Gamaye and Yatea plutons, also intrude the south and east of the Series (Figure 1B and C).

3. Previous work on the Loulo-Gounkoto complex

Lawrence et al. (2013a and b) described in detail the Gara and Yalea deposits, situated to the north of Gounkoto (Figure 1C). At Gara, ore is hosted in ankerite-quartz-pyrite veins, developed in a fractured and folded quartz wacke unit that has previously been pervasively tourmalinized. Accessory ore phases at Gara include chalcopryite, gersdorffite, pentlandite, arsenopyrite, monazite, scheelite and xenotime. Arsenopyrite is scarce in comparison to other orogenic gold deposits (Groves et al., 1998). The Yalea deposit is hosted in a 10- to 40-m-wide zone of strongly metasomatized (carbonate-albite followed by sericite-chlorite), brittle-ductile deformed rocks. In contrast to Gara, the Yalea Main ore body is As-rich. Arsenopyrite and arsenian pyrite are the dominant sulphide phases with accessory pyrrhotite, chalcopryite and tennantite. Alteration assemblages lack tourmaline, but sodic, carbonate and phyllic alteration are widespread. Lawrence et al. (2013b) reported fluid inclusion assemblages at Gara representing two distinct fluids: 1) A high T, high-salinity, aqueous, CO₂-poor fluid (~400°C; ~45-55 wt. % NaCl equiv.; XH₂O of 0.7-0.8; XCO₂ < 0.3); and 2) a lower T, low-salinity, H₂O-CO₂ fluid (270-350°C; <10 wt. % NaCl equiv.). High salinity fluid inclusions contain NaCl, FeCl₂, Fe₂O₃, Fe₃O₄ and carbonates as daughter minerals. Partial mixing occurred between these two fluids, which resulted in retrograde boiling and changes in the physico-chemical state of both fluids leading to Au precipitation. This is documented by the co-existence of H₂O-CO₂-NaCl inclusions of variable salinity and volatile compositions (Lawrence et al., 2013b). At Yalea Main the hypersaline fluid is notably absent and fluid inclusion assemblages are derived from phase separation in the low salinity H₂O-CO₂ fluid described at Gara.

4. Geology and structure of the Gounkoto deposit

The Gounkoto deposit is hosted on two left stepping jogs between a series of NNE trending sinistral shear zones, which developed during D₂ (Figure 2). Discrete N-S and NNW trending shears intersect the ore body along its ~2 km strike. This geometry is divided into five zones: 1) the Fe structure; 2) the wrench zone; 3) the pinch zone; 4) the jog zone; 5) the hanging wall ore body. The hanging wall comprises easterly-dipping, fine argillaceous sandstones, intercalated with dolostone units. Argillaceous sands are also present in the footwall, they dip steeply to the west and are interbedded with calcareous sandstone and phyllite. This sequence gives way to a metaquartzwacke unit. All units are intruded by numerous quartz monzodiorite dykes. The hanging wall and footwall are separated by a shear bounded package of strongly albitised metasedimentary rocks (Figure 2).

The southern part of the ore body consists of a hard linked sinistral dilational jog. Here, deformed and albitised rocks are bounded on the hanging wall by east dipping mineralised shear zones (354/70E) and west dipping shear zones in the footwall (184/84W). This jog represents the intersection between the long lived Fe structure, characterised by abundant Fe oxides and brittle D2 deformation overprinting earlier ductile deformation, and the Wrench Zone. A small subset of NNW trending shears (345/82WSW) in the wrench zone provide the linking architecture. North of this intersection the ore body narrows in to the Pinch Zone for ~500 m before making another 150-200 m left hand step-over in the Jog Zone. This step-over hosts the highest-grade mineralisation at Goukoto and is a site of significant dilatancy and deformation. Discrete N-S (008/85 E) trending shear zones host three en-echelon ore bodies, which are cross linked by shears at 336/82 ENE.

The hanging wall ore body is hosted in highly deformed dolostone and quartzite units ~150 m east of the main ore zone and extends for ~1 km along strike, dipping east. The body is discontinuous in places and is not as clearly structurally controlled as the main zones.

5. Ore mineralisation

Ore styles and textures

Goukoto features a wide variety of ore textures (Figure 3). These include 1) shear-hosted sulphide stringers; 2) hydrothermal breccias; 3) disseminated sulphides; and 4) hydrothermal veining. Sulphide stringers comprise bands of fractured and deformed pyrite and associated trace phases within chloritic shears (Figure 3A). These overprint chloritised or albitised wall rock, as well as the hanging wall dolostone package and are associated with high grades up to 89 g/t Au. Breccia hosted mineralisation at Goukoto typically affects strongly albitised rocks, which makes up the clasts, while the matrix consists of dolomite–pyrite–chlorite±magnetite±tourmaline. Breccia styles vary from hydrothermal jigsaw breccias (Figure 3B) to tectonised breccias (Figure 3C and D) in which clasts have undergone elongation, rounding and size reduction during deformation. Less deformed breccias regularly show low grades (<1 g/t Au), whereas more deformed breccias host up to 112 g/t Au (more typically ~20-50 g/t Au). Sulphides also occur as disseminations in altered wall rock (Figure 3E). The volume of disseminated sulphides is variable, but can reach >50 % of the total rock volume; this is generally proportional to ore grade. Auriferous veining at Goukoto consists of quartz-carbonate-pyrite-chlorite veins. These are typically located several 10s of meters outside the main ore zone, however they are also present in some parts of the Jog Zone, where they have commonly been boudinaged during ongoing deformation. Auriferous vein sets carry grades up to ~70 g/t Au where associated with disseminated ores, but are typically lower grade where observed outside the

main lodes (average ~ 1.7 g/t Au). Late barren veins cross cut all other ore textures at the Goukoto deposit. These are typically undeformed 1-2 cm thick carbonate \pm quartz veins with a milky appearance (Figure 3B).

Ore mineralogy

The paragenesis of the ore and alteration assemblages at Goukoto is summarised in Figure 4 and mineral chemistry is given in Table 1 and Table 2. Pyrite is the dominant ore phase at Goukoto, accounting for ~ 99 % of the sulphide phases present and ~ 95 % of ore phases (including magnetite). Auriferous pyrite typically shows two morphologies: highly fractured and rounded pyrites are interpreted to have formed prior to a phase of intense brittle-ductile deformation (Figure 5A). Grain size is variable, but generally < 500 μm . Auriferous pyrite is also euhedral to subhedral where present in areas of less intense deformation (Figure 5B and C). Both morphologies are commonly surrounded by anhedral, vuggy and fine-grained (typically < 300 μm) pyrite, containing abundant gangue inclusions (Figure 5B and C). This vuggy pyrite is typically associated with low grades (< 5 g/t Au). Arsenian pyrite is common at Goukoto, with As content between 0.1 and 1.9 wt. % (mean of 0.9 wt. %). In addition pyrite at Goukoto commonly contains Ni content between 0.2 and 7.8 wt. % (mean of 2.7 wt. %), with concentrations generally higher in the hanging wall ore body (mean of 4.4 wt. % Ni) than in the main ore body (mean of 0.9 wt. % Ni).

Magnetite can locally comprise up to 15 % of the ore body at Goukoto (Figure 5D). Early magnetite occurs as < 50 μm inclusions in pyrite or in gangue (Figure 5E). The main phase of magnetite mineralization occurs as cm scale annealed masses of 100 to 800 μm anhedral crystals. This replaces pyrite and is intergrown with dolomite and chlorite (Figure 5F). Replacement coincides with brecciation and remobilization of Au.

Accessory ore phases at Goukoto include arsenopyrite, pyrrhotite, chalcopyrite, scheelite, apatite, monazite, xenotime, gersdorffite, cobaltite and tennantite. Millerite, galena, clausthalite, ullmannite and polydymite are also present; however these are restricted to the hanging wall ore body (Table 1). Arsenopyrite is the most abundant accessory phase, occurring as < 100 μm blebby inclusions in pyrite and early barren, anhedral grains in the main ore body (Figure 5G) and as < 200 μm , rhombic crystals associated with disseminated auriferous pyrite in the hanging wall (Figure 5H). Using the geothermometer of Sharp et al. (1985) the range of atomic % As in arsenopyrite at Goukoto (Table 1) corresponds to formation temperatures of between 315 and 350°C.

Native gold at Goukoto is dominantly associated with pyrite and arsenian pyrite. Gold occurs as occluded grains within pyrite (Figure 6a), free grains within the gangue (Figure 6b and c); remobilised

grains in fractured or brecciated sulphides and along sulphide-gangue grain boundaries (Figure 6C). Gold grain size is typically $<30\ \mu\text{m}$, but remobilised grains are coarser (up to $200\ \mu\text{m}$). Gold fineness ranges from 980 to 999 in the main ore body, with average values of 957 in the hanging wall (Table 2). Gold telluride and gold-related trace phases at Goukoto include Au-bearing phases Bi-sylvanite ($[\text{Au}, \text{Ag}, \text{Bi}]\text{Te}_2$), petzite (Ag_3AuTe_2) and calaverite (AuTe_2) (Figure 6a) and non-Au-bearing phases altaite (PbTe) (Figure 6D), clausthalite (PbSe), native tellurium and bismuth (Table 2).

6. Alteration

Alteration at Goukoto is characterized by a number of distinct hydrothermal assemblages. These include: 1) sodic alteration; 2) carbonate alteration; 3) chloritisation; and 4) tourmalinisation (minor) (Figure 4). Albitisation and tourmalinisation have been described in detail at the Gara and Yalea deposits by Lawrence et al (2013a).

Albitisation

Sodic alteration at Goukoto predates mineralization. Hydrothermal breccias contain clasts of intensely albitised sedimentary rocks (Figure 3B, C and D) and auriferous veining in the Jog Zone of the deposit cross cuts albitised sediment packages. The albitised mineral assemblage comprises $<20 - 100\ \mu\text{m}$ albite with interstitial carbonate (<20 to $500\ \mu\text{m}$; consisting of Fe-Mn bearing dolomite) and accessory haematite ($\sim 10\ \mu\text{m}$), with trace apatite and monazite. Feldspars are altered to near pure albite (typically $<0.5\ \text{wt. \% K}_2\text{O}$ and $<1\ \text{wt. \% CaO}$). Albitised lithologies at Goukoto are relatively brittle and impermeable compared to unaltered sedimentary rocks and chloritic shear zones. In some cases, this competence contrast has apparently worked to enhance the grades in shear zones that form adjacent to boudins of albitised rock. In some sections of the ore body however, albitised rocks become brecciated, with significant mineralization hosted within the cement.

Tourmalinisation

Tourmalinisation at Goukoto is not widespread. Minor tourmalinite units (metaquartzwacke with tourmalinized phyllic matrix) are present, but are highly subordinate and weakly mineralized ($<0.5\ \text{g/t Au}$). Syn-mineralisation tourmaline is also present as a minor gangue mineral in hydrothermal-tectonic breccias and shear hosted mineralized zones.

Chloritisation

Ductile chloritic shears are the dominant ore host at Goukoto (Figure 3A) and comprise well-foliated, undulose aggregates of fine-grained ($<150\ \mu\text{m}$) chlorite crystals (Figure 5A). These shears

host auriferous sulphide phases (+magnetite) and overprint or cross-cut albite alteration. Individual shears are 100 μm to ~ 1 mm across and make up shear zones 10s of meters across. In parts of the Jog Zone discrete shears give way to pervasive chloritisation of the wall rock. Chlorite is also present as an accessory phase in the selvage of auriferous dolomite-quartz-pyrite veins. Post-ore chlorite at Goukoto has replaced sulphide and oxide ore minerals. Chlorite mineral compositions at Goukoto include brunsvigite, pycnochlorite, ripidolite and daphnite. The chlorite geothermometer of Cathelineau (1988), modified by Kranidiotis and Maclean (1987), gave a range of temperatures for syn-mineralisation chlorites between 235 and 364 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (mean of 293 $^{\circ}\text{C}$; $n=38$). Replacement stage chlorites show slightly broader range between 160 and 333 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (mean of 301 $^{\circ}\text{C}$; $n=10$).

Carbonate overprinting

In albitised units cross cut by mineralized chloritic shears and carbonate-pyrite veinlets, carbonate content of the rock can increase dramatically (up to 60 volume %). This takes the form of pervasive disseminated carbonate (which bleaches the rock; Figure 3D) and/or halos of Fe-rich carbonate surround veins and shears, producing deep red coloured alteration halos. This indicates multiple phases of carbonate alteration; with pervasive overprint of the albite alteration followed by more localized halos. In some lower grade parts of the deposit very coarse (up to 4 mm) euhedral dolomite crystals are disseminated throughout variably albitised host rock.

7. Fluid Inclusions

Petrography and timing of fluid inclusions

The four primary types of fluid inclusion reported by Lawrence et al., (2013b) are recognised in this study. These are: Type-I) $\text{CO}_2 \pm \text{N}_2 \pm \text{CH}_4$ inclusions (Figure 7a); type-II) $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{NaCl}$ inclusions (Figure 7b); type-III) $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl} \pm \text{N}_2 \pm \text{CH}_4$ inclusions (Figure 7c) and; type-IV) hypersaline, multiphase $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}-\text{FeCl}_2 \pm \text{CH}_4 \pm \text{N}_2$ inclusions (Figure 7d). Type-I inclusions are dominant at Goukoto and account for 69 % of the inclusions measured, while type-II account for 7% and type-III for 22 %. Type-IV are rare, with 4 inclusions analysed (2 %).

Type-I CO_2 -rich inclusions are mono- (LCO_2) (dominant) or bi-phase ($\text{LCO}_2 + \text{VCO}_2$) at 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. They are <5 to 30 μm , rounded to oblate, with rare negative crystal shapes and occur in randomly orientated clusters, often with type-III and rarely type-II inclusions. Type-II aqueous inclusions range in size from <2 μm to ~ 15 μm , are bi-phase at 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ($\text{LH}_2\text{O} + \text{VH}_2\text{O}$), show rounded or rare negative crystal shapes and occur as isolated inclusions or in small clusters with or without inclusion types-I and -III. Type-III immiscible $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ inclusions show a broad range of modal proportions between 20 and 85 vol. % CO_2 . At 20 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, these inclusions are two- ($\text{LH}_2\text{O} + \text{LCO}_2$) and, less commonly, three-phase ($\text{LH}_2\text{O} + \text{LCO}_2$

+ VCO₂). They are oblate to well-rounded, 5-20 μm in diameter and occur as individual inclusions or in discrete clusters with type-I and rarely type-II inclusions. Type-IV multiphase solid aqueous-rich inclusions are present in only one sample at Goukoto. Type-IV inclusions contain mono- or bi-phase (at 20 °C) CO₂ and one to three visible daughter minerals. Inclusions are <5 to 10 μm , rounded and occur with inclusions of type-I and -III.

Microthermometry

Microthermometric data from Goukoto is summarised in Table 3 and calculated bulk composition and density data is given in Table 4.

Type-I inclusions have a range in CO₂ melting temperatures (T_{mCO_2}) from -60.9 to -57.7 °C (mean of -58.7 °C) (Figure 8A). Depression of the CO₂ eutectic implies the presence of variable concentrations of N₂ and/or CH₄. Laser Raman analysis has confirmed the presence of 1.8 to 21.5 molar % N₂ and 0.6 to 1.1 molar % CH₄. The homogenisation temperature (T_{hCO_2}) of type-I inclusions ranges from -5.6 to 30.6 °C (mean of 20.3 °C) (Figure 8B). Inclusions predominantly homogenised into the liquid phase, with 3.2 % of inclusions homogenising to vapour and 4.7 % showing critical behaviour. Calculated fluid density ranges from 0.414 to 0.933 g·cm⁻³ (mean of 0.732 g·cm⁻³) (Figure 8C).

Type-II inclusions at Goukoto exhibit final ice melting temperatures (T_{mice}) from -4.9 to -0.2 °C (mean of -2.7 °C), with salinities between 0.35 and 7.7 wt. % NaCl equivalent (mean of 4.3 wt. %). Final homogenisation temperatures ($T_{\text{hH}_2\text{O}}$) vary considerably, from as low as 146 °C (possibly leaked) up to 365 °C (mean of 233 °C). The majority of $T_{\text{hH}_2\text{O}}$ values are above 200 °C ($n=8$). Calculated fluid density ranges from 0.66 to 0.97 g·cm⁻³ (mean of 0.848 g·cm⁻³) (Figure 8D).

T_{mCO_2} in type-III inclusions ranges from -62.3 °C to -58.1 °C (mean of -58.6 °C), and T_{hCO_2} ranges from -14.4 to 29.7 °C (mean of 18.2 °C; homogenisation to liquid) (Figure 8A and B). Clathrate melting temperatures (T_{mcl}) from -12.9 to 9.7 °C (mean of 5.9 °C) indicate salinities between 0.6 and 26.3 wt. % NaCl equivalent (mean of 6.4 wt. %) (Figure 8F). The majority of type-III inclusions have a T_{mcl} range between 4.4 and 9.7 °C (0.6 to 9.95 wt. % NaCl). However, type-III inclusions in one sample exhibit T_{mcl} from -12.9 to 7.9 °C (4.15 to 26.3 wt. % NaCl equivalent). Total homogenisation temperature ($T_{\text{h tot}}$) was only measured for 25 (~70 %) of type-III inclusions analysed (Figure 8E); the rest either decrepitated (T_{d}) or showed no identifiable change. T_{d} values range from 200 to 300 °C (mean of 257 °C) and are treated as minimum estimates of homogenisation temperatures. $T_{\text{h tot}}$ values range from 240 to 370 °C (mean of 322 °C). Bulk densities (ρ_{tot}) for the variable salinity

population range from 0.863 to 1.056g·cm⁻³ (mean of 0.955g·cm⁻³), while the majority range from 0.694 to 1.044g·cm⁻³.

Type-IV inclusions are extremely rare at Goukoto ($n=4$) and microthermometric data are thus incomplete. $T_m\text{CO}_2$ and $T_h\text{CO}_2$ of the gaseous phase ranged from -60 to -57.3 and 1.7 to 15.7 °C, respectively. Reliable salinity data is scarce; one $T_s\text{NaCl}$ temperature at 343 °C indicates a salinity of 41.2 wt. % NaCl equivalent. Salinity estimates calculated from volumetric proportions give values of 36.8 and 38.6 wt. % NaCl equivalent; all salinity data are within the range for type-IV inclusions reported by Lawrence et al. (2013b; 36.9 to 44.5 wt. % NaCl equivalents). Two homogenisation temperatures were observed at 445 and 460 °C. Calculated ρ_{tot} is between 1.13 and 1.27g·cm⁻³.

8. Stable isotopes

Stable isotope data from Goukoto are summarised in Table 5. Auriferous pyrite at Goukoto shows a $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ range from 5.8 to 12.8 ‰ ($n=18$; mean of 8.6 ± 2 ‰). Au-bearing arsenopyrite yielded a single $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value of 8.8 ‰ (Figure 9A). No diagenetic sulphides have been observed in the wall rocks at Goukoto, therefore in order to compare against $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of auriferous pyrite, diagenetic pyrite samples were collected from barren dolostone units in the Kofi Series at Baqata, Kolya, Gara and Yalea (Figure 1b); these show a range of values from 6.4 to 25.1 ‰ ($n=4$; includes data from Lawrence et al., 2013b). Quartz from auriferous veining yielded $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values between 12.9 and 17.4 ‰ ($n=6$; mean of 16 ± 1.5 ‰). $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from dolomite in Au-bearing veins ranges from 14.7 to 20.5 ‰ ($n=8$; mean of 17.3 ± 2.2 ‰) (Figure 9B). Dolomite from barren carbonate veins has similar values at 18.2 ‰ ($n=2$). Two $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values were also obtained from hematite and one from magnetite in the Goukoto ore body, these were -1.4 ($n=2$) and 4.2 ‰, respectively. Calculated $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{fluid}}$ values range from 7.3 to 15.3 ‰, calculated from quartz, dolomite and magnetite using the equations of Matsuhisa et al. (1979), Zheng et al. (1999) and Zheng and Simon (1991). Auriferous vein carbonates have $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between -13.6 and -6.3 ‰ ($n=8$; mean of -9.1 ± 2.2 ‰). Carbonate minerals from late barren veining and wall rock dolostones gave values between -3.1 and -0.5 ‰ ($n=3$; mean of -2 ‰) (Figure 9C). The two equilibrium temperatures were calculated from quartz-dolomite mineral pairs at 344 and 346 °C using the equations of Zheng et al. (1999).

9. Discussion

Fluid immiscibility at Goukoto

Lawrence et al., (2013b) interpreted the fluid inclusion assemblages at the Yalea deposit to represent immiscible fluids formed through unmixing of a common parent fluid. Similar inclusion assemblages are observed at Goukoto and show broadly similar behaviour. Type-I, -II and -III

inclusions at Goukoto indicate that some level of fluid immiscibility was reached during entrapment. Ramboz et al., (1982) report criteria for identifying fluid immiscibility. These state that pairs of liquid- and vapour-rich inclusions must: 1) demonstrate simultaneous trapping; 2) homogenize in a comparable temperature range via opposite modes of homogenisation; and 3) decrepitate in a comparable temperature range if they are similar in size and shape.

Type-I and type-II inclusions at Goukoto occur in the same assemblages, thus satisfying (1). Type-III inclusions show behaviour which supports criteria 2 in that those inclusions with >50 vol. % CO₂ tend to homogenise into the CO₂ phase and vice versa within the same temperature range. The third criterion is difficult to assess, as only limited decrepitation data were recorded (n=5). Nevertheless, compositional similarities between inclusion types imply a common origin. Type-II and -III inclusions exhibit similar salinities (Figure 8F). TmCO₂ and ThCO₂ are comparable in type-I and -III inclusions indicating similar compositions and densities (Figure 8A and B). Lastly, type-III inclusions exhibit higher Th than type-II, a phenomenon commonly associated with fluid immiscibility (Roedder, 1984). The variable phase proportions (XCO₂ from 0.06 to 0.55) in type-III inclusions suggest that they represent heterogeneous trapping of the two end member fluids (Diamond, 1990; Yao et al., 2001; Lawrence et al., 2013b).

As with many Birimian deposits, Goukoto features a higher proportion of CO₂-rich inclusions compared to aqueous and aqueous-carbonic inclusions (Schwartz et al., 1992; Hammond and Shimazaki, 1994; Klemd and Hirdes, 1997; Klemd et al., 1997; Willie and Klemd, 2004; Lawrence et al., 2013b); though this is not always the case (Treloar et al., 2014). This is not an observation normally associated with fluid immiscibility, but could be explained by: 1) water loss along migrating grain boundaries (Hollister, 1990) or through diffusion (Bakker, 2009); 2) phase separation at the crystal boundary due to the different wetting properties of H₂O and CO₂ (Holness, 1993; Johnson and Hollister, 1995); 3) consumption of H₂O via thermal degradation of ethane (Gaboury, 2013). Water leakage can be dismissed, as the pCO₂ in type-I and -III inclusions is comparable; water leakage would lower the density of the remaining CO₂ (Yao and Robb, 2000). Crystal boundary phase separation cannot be ruled out and may have enhanced the immiscibility of the fluid during entrapment, resulting in the pure end member phases described in type-I and -II inclusions. Gaboury (2013) reported carbonaceous shale sourced C₂H₆ in fluid inclusions from the Mana District in Burkina Faso and observed that the thermal degradation of C₂H₆ under hydrothermal conditions would consume H₂O and enrich the fluid in CO₂, which could generate CO₂-rich assemblages such as at Goukoto.

P-T conditions of fluid trapping

The P-T trapping conditions at Goukoto were calculated using intersecting isochores of type-I and type-II fluid inclusions (constructed using the software package FLUIDS) (Bakker, 2003)(Figure 10), in combination with arsenopyrite (315 to 350 °C) and quartz-dolomite isotope equilibria temperatures (344 °C and 346 °C). P-T conditions are estimated at 1.1 to 1.7 kbar (depth of 4.1 to 6.2 km) and 315 to 356 °C; the mean isochores for type-I and -II inclusions intersect at 1.4 kbar and 340 °C.

Fluid mixing at Goukoto

Lawrence et al. (2013b) reported partial mixing between a hypersaline fluid and a dilute aqueous-carbonic fluid at the Gara deposit. Type-IV inclusions co-occurring with type-III inclusions with uncharacteristically variable salinities suggest a similar process at Goukoto, with the brine enhancing the salinity of type-III inclusions (Figure 11). This mixing occurred in discrete parts of the Goukoto deposit. Type IV inclusions are only observed in the Jog Zone, implying a structural control on fluid interaction. It is conceivable that fluids could remain segregated due to pooling in between failure events. This may imply that the hypersaline fluid is being introduced along brittle structures, which failed periodically and introduced pulses of the fluid into the system.

Causes of fluid immiscibility and effect of fluid mixing

Phase separation via effervescence occurs in $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}$ fluids when the immiscibility field expands to higher temperatures in response to lower pressures due to a reduction in the solubility of CO_2 and other volatiles (Brown and Lamb, 1989). This can be demonstrated at Goukoto through 1) the wide range in $p\text{CO}_2$ of type-I inclusions suggesting pressure fluctuations such as those associated with fault valve systems (Sibson, 1989; Cox et al., 2005); and 2) lower T_h values in type-II inclusions (~232 °C) compared to type-III (~322 °C), suggesting the removal of CO_2 from solution which reduces the pressure, and therefore homogenisation temperature, of the remaining aqueous phase (Robert and Kelly, 1987). An increase in salinity of the aqueous-carbonic fluid would further decrease the solubility of CO_2 (Zhang and Frantz, 1992; Diamond, 2001). Thus, mixing with the hypersaline fluid would have enhanced phase separation in the aqueous-carbonic fluid (Anderson et al., 1992).

Gold precipitation at Goukoto

In an aqueous-carbonic fluid at around 1.4 Kbar and 340 °C, Au is most likely to be transported as thiosulphide complexes ($\text{Au}(\text{HS})^\circ$ or $\text{Au}(\text{HS})_2^-$) (Ridley et al., 1996; Williams-Jones et al., 2009). It is unclear if the hypersaline fluid is auriferous; it should be noted that large Au deposits such as Yalea have formed in its absence (Lawrence et al., 2013b). This implies that the hypersaline fluid at Goukoto may be primarily important as a trap and not a significant Au carrier. This is further

supported by the instability of Au-Chloride complexes at low fO_2 and near neutral pH conditions (Williams-Jones and Migdisov, 2014). Fluid inclusion assemblages, ore textures and paragenetic relationships at Goukoto indicate that Au precipitation was most likely caused by a combination of: (1) phase separation; (2) wall rock sulphidation; and (3) reduction of the ore fluid (Ridley et al., 1996). These processes would destabilise Au thiosulphide complexes, leading to Au precipitation. Wall rock sulphidation at Goukoto was likely dominant in areas of the deposit featuring disseminated sulphides. Whereas brecciated and the subordinate veined ore textures are likely more closely linked to phase separation, where brittle failure would have resulted in rapid fluid pressure fluctuations. Further, interaction with reduced organic carbon in the hanging wall dolostone is supported by relatively light $\delta^{13}C$ values exhibited by carbonate minerals in auriferous veining (-13.6 to -9 ‰), a similar phenomenon was observed by Lawrence et al., (2013b) at the Yalea deposit.

Volatile and metal sources at Goukoto

The low salinity (<5 wt. % NaCl equiv.), moderate temperature CO_2 -rich, H_2O - CO_2 -NaCl fluid at Goukoto closely resembles the 'model fluid' for orogenic gold deposits (c.f. Ridley and Diamond, 2000; Garofalo et al., 2014). Many regard these fluids to be derived from prograde metamorphic devolatilisation reactions (McCuaig and Kerrich, 1998; Tomkins 2010; Phillips and Powell, 2010; Yardley and Cleverly, 2013). Stable isotope analysis of O, C and S from ore and vein phases at Goukoto supports this interpretation. Calculated $\delta^{18}O_{fluid}$ values at Goukoto plot dominantly in the metamorphic water field of Ohmoto and Goldhaber (1997). Positive $\delta^{34}S$ values in auriferous pyrite (5.8 to 12.8 ‰) sit within the range for Kofi Series diagenetic pyrite (6.4 to 25.1 ‰), suggesting derivation from desulphidation of diagenetic pyrite (Pitcairn et al., 2006; Phillips and Powell, 2010). Similarly, $\delta^{13}C$ data (-13.6 to -6.3 ‰) suggest that carbon in auriferous veins is derived from a mixed sourced, comprising: 1) dissolution of carbonate minerals within the Kofi Series (-2 ‰) and; 2) oxidation of graphite derived from organic material hosted in dolostone units (Palaeoproterozoic $\delta^{13}C_{org} \approx -24 \pm 6$ ‰) (Schidlowski, 1983). The hypersaline fluid inclusions observed at Gara, Yalea North (Lawrence et al., 2013b) and Goukoto are uncommon in the wider Birimian. Lawrence et al., (2013b) discussed the possibility of evaporite dissolution in their generation, but ultimately interpreted the fluids to be of magmatic origin. This was based upon the apparent higher temperature and the metaliferous composition of the brines ($FeCl_2$ -rich). However, the lack of a magmatic signature in the stable isotope dataset at Goukoto forces us to reconsider this position. The presence of heavy $\delta^{34}S$ values (19.7 and 25.1 ‰) in Kofi Series diagenetic pyrite may support the former presence of evaporite units in the Kofi. Pyrite formed through the reduction of evaporitic sulphate minerals (e.g. anhydrite) has been shown to inherit diagnostically high $\delta^{34}S$ values (c.f.

Monteiro et al., 2008). This suggests that the dissolution of evaporite units within the Kofi Series may indeed be a viable source for these brines. Nevertheless, the high homogenization temperatures recorded for the brine (up to 445 °C) cannot be ignored and therefore a magmatic source cannot be wholly ruled out. We consider that the apparently subordinate nature of the hypersaline fluid could result in the dilution of any magmatic isotopic signature to the point of being undetectable.

Conclusions

The Goukoto deposit formed at P-T conditions of approximately 1.4 kbar and 340 °C and features mineralogical and fluid chemical characteristics in common with both Gara- and Yalea-style mineralisation as described by Lawrence et al., (2013a and b). These include sodic and B-metasomatism, As-rich ore assemblages and Ni-Co substitution in pyrite. The ore body also features some distinct characteristics, including the presence of significant quantities of magnetite, selenide trace minerals and telluride ore phases.

The end member fluids identified by Lawrence et al., (2013b) at Gara and Yalea are also identified at Goukoto: (1) a moderate temperature (315-340 °C), low salinity (<10 wt. % NaCl equiv.), low density ($\leq 1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}-\text{H}_2\text{S}\pm\text{N}_2-\text{CH}_4$ fluid; (2) a high temperature (up to 445 °), hypersaline (~40 wt. % NaCl equiv.), high density ($\sim 1.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}\pm\text{FeCl}_2$ fluid. Partial mixing of these fluids within the Jog Zone at Goukoto enhanced phase separation in the aqueous-carbonic fluid and acted as a precipitation mechanism for Au. These findings demonstrate the widespread, if heterogeneously distributed, nature of fluid mixing as an ore forming process in the Loulo-Goukoto complex, operating over at least a 30 km strike length of the shear zone.

Stable isotope analyses of ore components at Goukoto indicate a dominant metamorphic source for H_2O , H_2S and CO_2 , and by extension Au. It thus can be reasoned that both the aqueo-carbonic and the hypersaline fluid at Goukoto are of metamorphic origin and that the high levels of salinity in the brine are likely derived from evaporite dissolution.

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Appendix – Analytical methods

a. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy

Mineral compositions were determined using an Oxford Instruments X-ACT Energy Dispersive System detector mounted on a Zeiss EVO 50 Scanning Electron Microscope at Kingston University London. The EDS employed an accelerating voltage of 20 kV, a beam current of 1.5 na, and a detector process time of 4. The detection limit for all elements was ~ 0.2 wt %.

b. Microthermometry

Samples of auriferous quartz veins (grades of 0.13 to 27.6 g/t Au) were prepared as doubly-polished ~150 μm wafers. All inclusions analysed were in quartz ($n=172$). Microthermometry was carried out at Kingston University using a Linkam THMSG600 temperature controlled stage with a Nikon Optiphot microscope. The stage was calibrated using Linkam synthetic fluid inclusion standards of pure CO_2 and H_2O . Reproducibility was ± 0.2 °C below 30 °C and ± 2 °C up to 400 °C.

c. Laser Raman Spectroscopy

Raman analysis was carried out using a Renishaw InVia Raman spectrometer attached to a Leica DM 2500 M microscope. A 500 mW Ar-ion laser (514 nm) was used, with a spot size of ~5 μm . The Raman was calibrated using a $\text{CH}_4\text{-CO}_2$ standard. Data reduction was carried out using the WiRE 4 software package, with a running time between 30-60 seconds. Molar fractions were calculated using peak area measurements of the Raman spectra and the formula of (Burke, 2001).

d. Calculations for fluid PVTx properties

Calculations of P-V-T-X properties of fluid inclusions, based on the microthermometric data, were made using the software package FLUIDS (Bakker, 2003). The following equations of state were used: Duan et al., (1992; 1996) for carbonic fluid inclusions; Zhang and Frantz (1987) and Archer (1992) for $\text{H}_2\text{O-NaCl}$ fluid inclusions; and Bowers and Helgeson (1983a, b) and Bakker (1999) for inclusions in the $\text{H}_2\text{O-CO}_2\text{-NaCl}$ system. Salinity was calculated using the equations of Lecumberri-Sanchez et al. (2012), and from estimates of the degree of fill of the inclusions.

e. Stable isotope analysis

Silicate separates were analyzed using a laser fluorination procedure following Sharp (1990). Reproducibility, based on repeat analyses of lab and international standards was better than $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$ (1σ). Carbonate and sulphide samples were analyzed by standard techniques (Craig, 1957; Robinson and Kusakabe, 1975), with reproducibility of $\pm 0.15\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\pm 0.7\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ (1σ). Oxygen, carbon, and sulphur isotopes are reported in standard notation as per mil (‰)

deviations from the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW), Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (V-PDB), and Vienna Cañon Diablo Troilite (V-CDT) standards, respectively.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Geological maps showing (a) the Birimian terranes in West Africa; (b) the geology of the Kédougou-Kéniéba Inlier with key plutons and mines indicated; (c) the geology of the Senegal-Mali Shear Zone around the Loulo-Goukoto Complex (modified from Lawrence et al., 2013a).

Figure 2. Geological and structural map of the Goukoto gold deposit.

Figure 3. Photographs of diamond drill core showing: (a) Sulphide stringers associated with chloritic shearing in the jog zone (b) jigsaw style hydrothermal breccia with albitised clasts and carbonate-pyrite cement cross cut by late veining; (c) brecciated albitised sedimentary rock with Fe-rich rims in breccia clasts and ankerite-chlorite-pyrite cement ; (d) brecciated and deformed albitised sedimentary rock with chlorite-carbonate-pyrite veining; and (e) disseminated pyrite ore with interstitial ankerite replacing the host rock.

Figure 4. Summary paragenetic diagram for the Goukoto deposit.

Figure 5. Reflected light photomicrographs of: (a) deformed pyrite grains hosted in chloritic shears; (b) euhedral auriferous pyrite surrounded by skeletal pyrite in the hanging wall ore body; (c) euhedral inclusion free pyrite surrounded by inclusion-rich anhedral pyrite in low grade ore in the Jog Zone; (d) semi-massive magnetite intergrown with ankerite; (e) haematite corona texture, replacing early magnetite grain in the Wrench Zone; (f) annealed magnetite replacing pyrite. BSE images of (g) blebby arsenopyrite inclusions within pyrite grain; and (h) euhedral arsenopyrite grains in dolostone host rock, note some grains are annealed to pyrite

Figure 6. BSE images of: (a) grains of occluded calaverite and native Au in pyrite; (b) free Au grains hosted in chlorite-ankerite assemblage; (c) free and fracture filling Au associated with pyrite; (d) fractured subhedral pyrite hosting remobilised Au and telluride minerals surrounded by barren skeletal pyrite.

Figure 7. Photomicrographs of: (a) type-I bi-phase CO₂ rich inclusions in an isolated cluster, exhibiting negative crystal shapes; (b) bi-phase low salinity H₂O-NaCl inclusions in early isolated cluster; (c) triple-phase (LH₂O, LCO₂ and VCO₂) type-III H₂O-CO₂-NaCl at 6.6 °C; and (d) type 4 H₂O-NaCl-CO₂-nS inclusion, exhibiting a liquid H₂O phase, liquid CO₂ phase and at least 3 solid phases at room temperature.

Figure 8. Histograms showing: (a) Melting temperature of CO₂ values for type-I and -III inclusions; (b) CO₂ homogenisation values of type-I and -III inclusions; (c) calculated pCO₂ for type -I and -III inclusions; (d) calculated pBulk for type-III inclusions; (e) total homogenisation temperatures and decrepitation temperatures for type-III inclusions; and (f) salinity of type-II, -III and -IV inclusions.

Figure 9. Histograms showing: (a) $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ data from auriferous and diagenetic sulphides; (b) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data from auriferous silicate, carbonate and oxide phases; and (c) $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data from auriferous carbonate vein minerals, barren vein carbonate minerals and carbonate from host dolostones sequences. Diagenetic pyrite values at 8 and 10 ‰ are from Lawrence et al. (2013b).

Figure 10. Pressure-temperature-depth plot showing maximum, minimum and mean density isochores for type-I inclusions (solid line) and type-II inclusions (dashed lines) at Goukoto. Vertical dotted and dashed lines represent the temperature range of arsenopyrite geothermometry and paired oxygen isotope equilibria. The shaded area represents the most likely P-T trapping conditions at the Goukoto deposit, based on intercepts of arsenopyrite and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ geothermometers.

Figure 11. Plot of salinity versus total homogenisation temperature of type-III and -IV inclusions at Goukoto showing a weak positive trend, which suggests mixing of the end member brine and aqueous-carbonic fluids.

Tables

Table 1. Representative EDS analyses of sulphide phases in the main ore body and hanging wall ore body at Goukoto.

Mineral	Wt. %										At. % As
	S	Fe	Cu	As	Ni	Co	Sb	Pb	Se	Total	
Main ore body											
Arsenopyrite	22.0	35.9	-	41.5	-	-	-	-	-	99.5	-
Arsenopyrite	21.7	35.3	-	42.9	-	-	-	-	-	99.9	30.5
Arsenopyrite	21.2	35.5	-	42.6	-	-	-	-	-	99.3	30.5
Arsenopyrite	22.0	35.9	-	41.5	-	-	-	-	-	99.5	29.4
Arsenopyrite	21.5	36.0	-	41.3	-	-	-	-	-	98.8	29.5
Arsenopyrite	21.6	35.5	-	42.3	-	-	-	-	-	99.5	30.1
Arsenopyrite	22.2	36.2	-	41.7	-	-	-	-	-	100.2	29.3
As-Co-Pyrite	51.4	43.3	-	1.2	-	3.2	-	-	-	99.0	-
As-Pyrite	52.0	46.7	-	1.9	-	-	-	-	-	100.6	-
As-Pyrite	54.1	46.7	-	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	100.9	-
As-Pyrite	52.8	46.5	-	0.9	-	-	-	-	-	100.2	-
As-Pyrite	52.6	46.6	-	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	99.8	-
Chalcopyrite	34.6	30.7	34.7	0.0	-	-	-	-	-	99.9	-
Co-Arsenopyrite	21.4	32.3	-	41.9	-	4.0	-	-	-	99.7	-
Cobaltite	20.7	3.5	-	43.3	-	33.4	-	-	-	100.8	-
Gersdorffite	20.0	11.0	-	43.1	24.4	-	-	-	-	98.6	-
Ni-Pyrite	50.5	45.1	-	2.8	1.2	-	-	-	-	99.6	-
Ni-Pyrite	50.7	43.9	-	3.3	1.1	-	-	-	-	98.8	-
Ni-Pyrite	51.0	45.1	-	3.6	1.3	-	-	-	-	101.1	-
Ni-Pyrite	52.8	45.5	2.7	-	0.4	-	-	-	-	101.3	-
Ni-Pyrite	52.6	45.2	-	-	1.0	-	-	-	-	98.8	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.2	43.6	0.8	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	98.9	-
Pyrite	53.3	47.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.3	-
Pyrrhotite	38.7	60.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	99.6	-
Tennantite	29.2	7.3	43.5	19.5	-	-	-	-	-	99.6	-
Hanging wall ore body											
Arsenopyrite	21.4	35.4	-	42.1	-	-	-	-	-	98.9	30.1
Arsenopyrite	21.8	35.7	-	41.8	-	-	-	-	-	99.3	29.7
Chalcopyrite	35.3	30.9	33.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.0	-
Clausthalite	3.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	76.3	20.2	99.9	-
Cobaltite	21.2	5.0	-	42.6	7.3	24.7	-	-	-	100.8	-
Galena	11.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	87.0	2.7	100.9	-
Millerite	35.2	1.3	-	-	63.6	-	-	-	-	100.0	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.0	44.4	-	-	2.8	-	-	-	-	100.2	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.9	41.7	-	-	5.0	-	-	-	-	100.6	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.1	40.3	-	-	7.8	-	-	-	-	101.3	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.6	43.3	-	-	4.4	-	-	-	-	101.3	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.9	41.7	-	-	4.9	-	-	-	-	100.6	-
Ni-Pyrite	53.4	43.9	-	-	3.3	-	-	-	-	100.5	-
Pentlandite	33.3	28.6	-	1.3	35.7	1.4	-	-	-	100.3	-
polydymite	41.7	11.8	-	-	46.1	-	-	-	-	99.6	-
Pyrite	53.3	47.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.5	-
Pyrrhotite	39.1	61.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100.2	-
Ullmannite	14.7	-	-	-	28.0	-	57.3	-	-	100.0	-

Table 2. Representative EDS analyses of native Au and related trace phases in the main ore body and the hanging wall ore body at Goukoto.

Mineral Phase	Te	Au	Ag	Pb	Se	Cd	Total
<u>Main ore body</u>							
Altaite	39.52	0.00	0.00	60.05	0.00	0.00	99.57
Au	0.00	99.68	1.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.74
Au in Gangue	0.00	99.70	0.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.23
Au in Gangue	0.00	100.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.10
Au in Gangue	0.00	98.18	1.78	0.00	0.00	0.00	99.96
Au Occluded	0.00	98.56	0.53	0.00	0.00	0.11	99.20
Au remobilised	0.00	98.02	1.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	99.13
Au remobilised	0.00	98.47	0.96	0.00	0.00	0.00	99.43
Clausthalite	0.00	0.00	0.00	72.24	27.87	0.00	100.12
Tellurium	100.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.03
<u>Hanging wall ore body</u>							
Au	0.00	95.86	4.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.08

Table 3. Summary of microthermometric data from fluid inclusions at Goukoto

Type	Tm(CO ₂)	Tm(Cl)	Tm(ice)	Th(CO ₂)(L)	Th(CO ₂)(V)	Th(CO ₂)(C)	Ts	Th(V)	Th(L)	Td
<u>Type-I</u>										
Min	-60.9	-	-	-5.6	25.4	26.0	-	-	-	-
Max	-57.7	-	-	30.6	26.3	27.3	-	-	-	-
Mean	-58.7	-	-	19.8	25.9	26.6	-	-	-	-
N	63.0	-	-	56.0	2.0	3.0	-	-	-	-
<u>Type-II</u>										
Min	-	-	-4.9	-	-	-	-	-	146.0	0.7
Max	-	-	-0.2	-	-	-	-	-	364.8	0.9
Mean	-	-	-2.7	-	-	-	-	-	232.5	0.8
N	-	-	12.0	-	-	-	-	-	12.0	11.0
<u>Type-III</u>										
Min	-62.3	-12.9	-	-14.4	-	-	-	270.5	240.0	200.0
Max	-58.1	9.7	-	29.7	-	-	-	369.5	340.3	300.0
Mean	-58.6	5.9	-	18.2	-	-	-	328.1	298.4	256.5
N	35.0	36.0	-	36.0	-	-	-	20.0	5.0	5.0
<u>Type-IV</u>										
1	-58.1	-	-	1.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	-59.0	-11.2	-	15.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	-60.0	-9.5	-	7.0	-	-	-	-	445.0	-
4	-57.3	-	-	-	-	-	342.8	-	460.0	-

Table 4. Summary of calculated bulk composition and density data, including compositions derived from laser raman analyses at Goukoto. χ refers to molar proportions.

	Wt. % NaCl equiv.	ρCO_2 (gcm ⁻³)	ρTotal (gcm ⁻³)	Molecular %			χ		
				CO ₂	N ₂	CH ₄	H ₂ O	NaCl	CO ₂
<u>Type-I</u>									
Min	-	0.22	-	78.48	0.00	0.00	-	-	1.00
Max	-	0.93	-	99.38	21.52	1.07	-	-	1.00
Mean	-	0.69	-	91.97	7.53	0.50	-	-	1.00
<i>N</i>	-	60	-	5	5	5	-	-	60
<u>Type-II</u>									
Min	0.35	-	0.66	-	-	-	0.97	0.00	-
Max	7.73	-	0.97	-	-	-	1.00	0.03	-
Mean	4.38	-	0.87	-	-	-	0.99	0.01	-
<i>N</i>	12	-	12	-	-	-	12	12	-
<u>Type-III</u>									
Min	0.63	0.68	0.69	-	-	-	0.40	0.00	0.00
Max	26.28	0.97	1.06	-	-	-	0.87	0.14	0.57
Mean	6.44	0.77	0.92	-	-	-	0.68	0.03	0.20
<i>N</i>	36	36	35	-	-	-	24	24	35
<u>Type-IV</u>									
1	39.77	0.88	1.21	-	-	-	0.40	0.37	0.26
2	-	0.80		-	-	-	-	-	-
3	36.46	0.85	1.28	-	-	-	0.36	0.56	0.07
4	41.74	-	1.32	-	-	-	0.38	0.53	0.09

Table 5. Table summarising stable isotope data from the Goukoto deposit and the surrounding area (for diagenetic pyrite). * - data points from Lawrence et al. (2013b). Abbreviations: Apy, - arsenopyrite, Ank – ankerite, Dol – dolomite, Hm – haematite, Mag – magnetite, Py – pyrite, Qtz – quartz.

Sample	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PDB}} (\text{‰})$		$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{SMOW}} (\text{‰})$					$\delta^{34}\text{S}_{\text{CDT}} (\text{‰})$		$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} (\text{‰})$				
	Dol	Ank	Qtz	Dol	Ank	Mag	Hm	Py	Apy	Qtz	Dol	Ank	Mag	Hm
Ore body														
JLS01	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.2	8.8	-	-	-	-	-
JLS02	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS05	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS06	-11.2	-	-	19.1	-	-	-	10.0	-	-	14.0	-	-	-
JLS09	-	-	-	-	-	4.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	12.4	-
JLS10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS10B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS12	-	-13.6	12.9	16.3	-	-	-	12.5	-	7.3	11.2	-	-	-
JLS13	-	-	-	-	-	-	-1.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.7
JLS15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-1.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.5
JLS19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS22	-	-	17.1	-	-	-	-	5.9	-	11.5	-	-	-	-
JLS23	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS25	-6.3	-	17.4	17.7	-	-	-	-	-	11.8	12.6	-	-	-
JLS26	-9.4	-	16.8	20.5	-	-	-	-	-	11.2	15.3	-	-	-
JLS27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.6	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS28	-6.7	-	16.1	15.2	-	-	-	-	-	10.5	10.0	-	-	-
JLS31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS33	-8.9	-	-	14.9	-	-	-	9.7	-	-	9.8	-	-	-
JLS34	-9.0	-	-	19.8	-	-	-	5.8	-	-	14.6	-	-	-
JLS34B	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.8	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS35	-	-8.0	15.7	14.7	-	-	-	-	-	10.1	9.6	-	-	-
Diagenetic pyrite														
JLSB09	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLSB07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
07YD52*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
07YD89*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.4	-	-	-	-	-	-
Barren carbonate veining														
JLS18	-2.4	-	-	18.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
JLS29	-0.5	-	-	18.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Host dolostone														
JLS32	-3.1	-	-	19.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

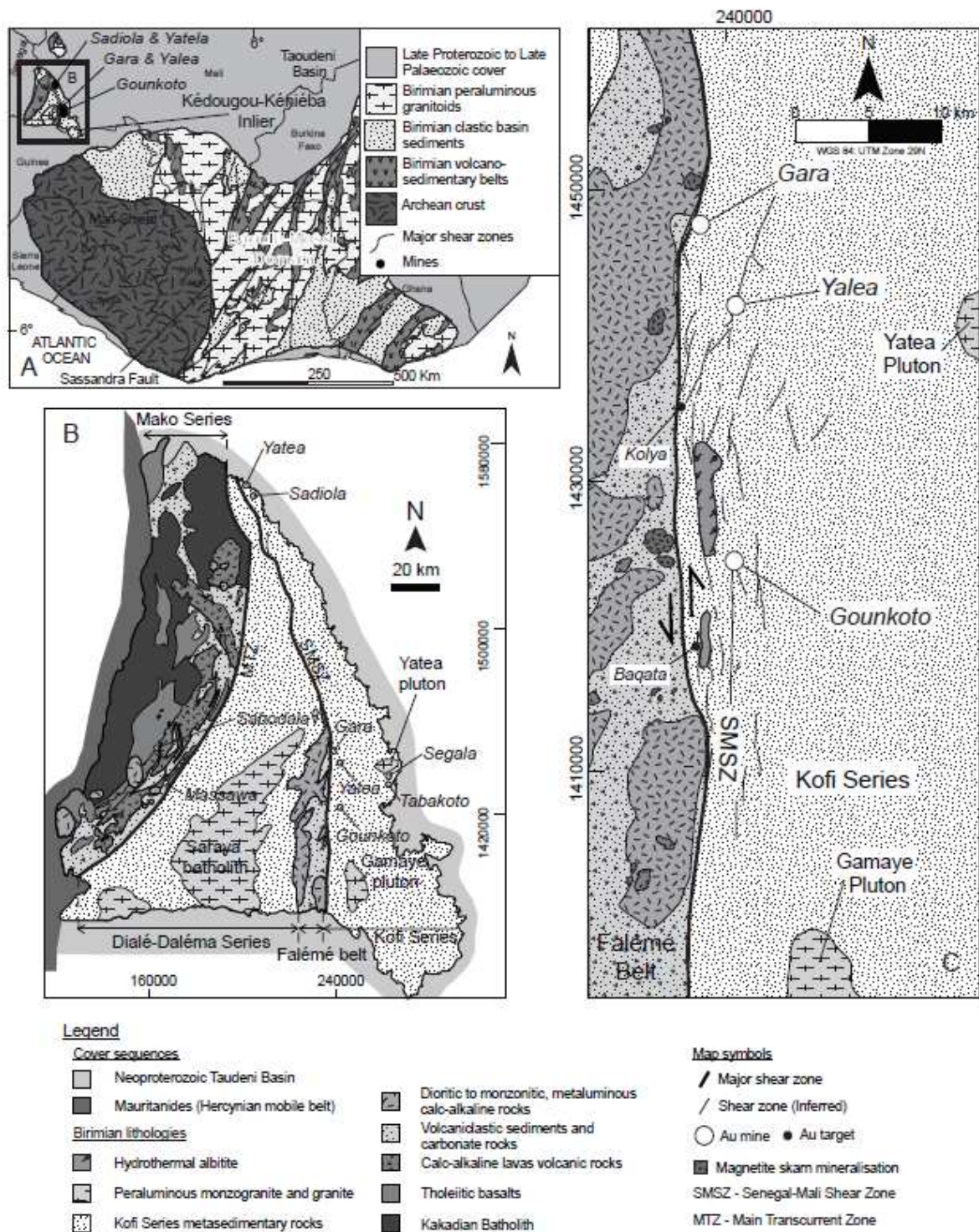


Fig. 1

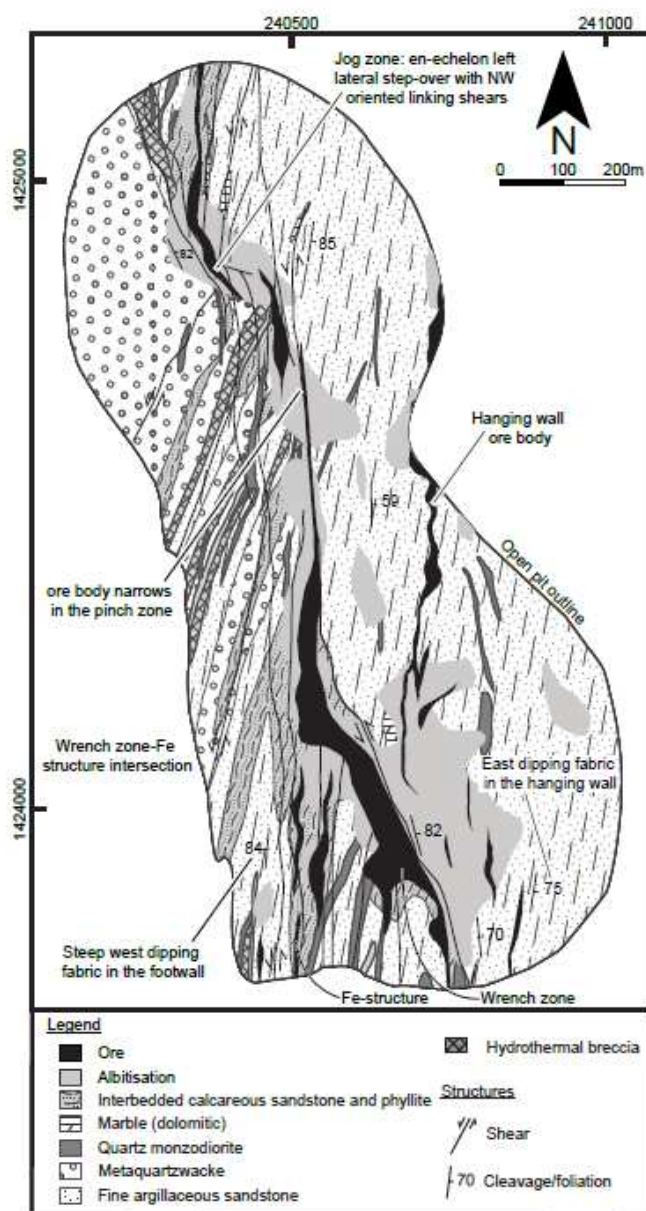


Fig. 2

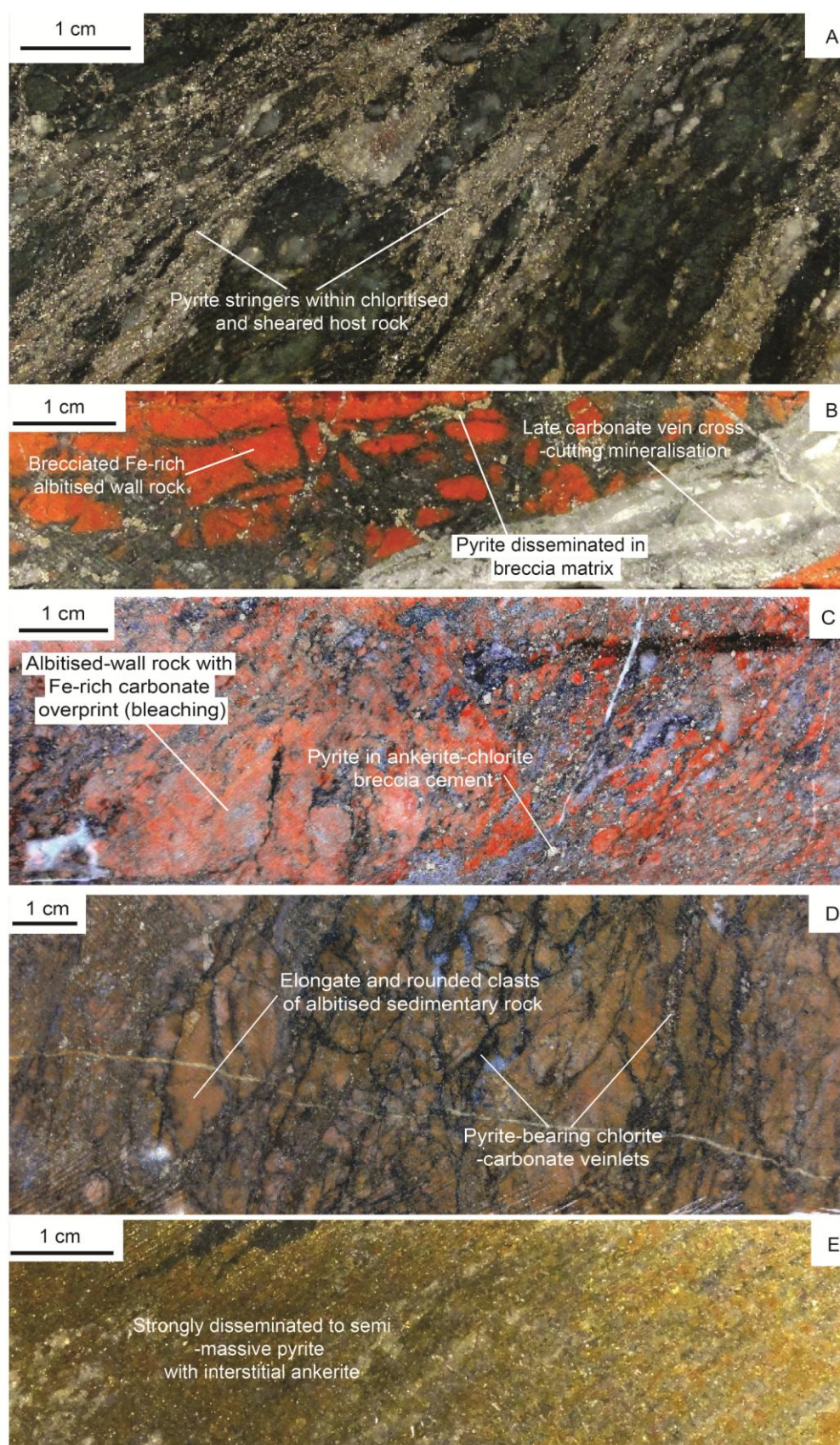


Fig. 3

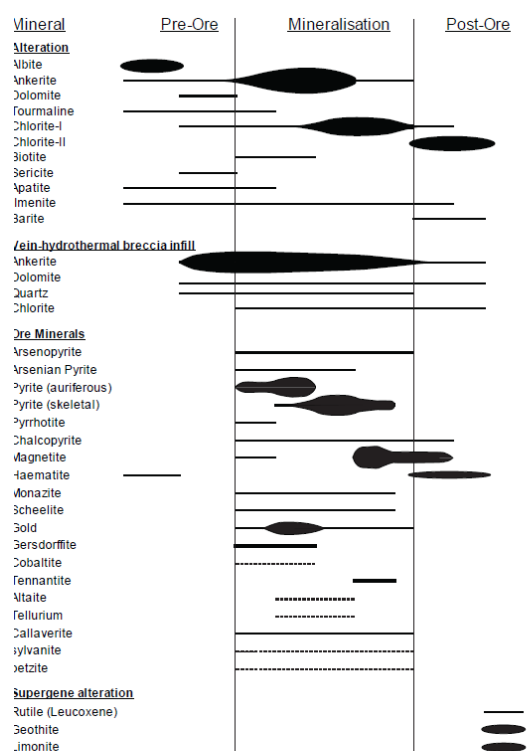


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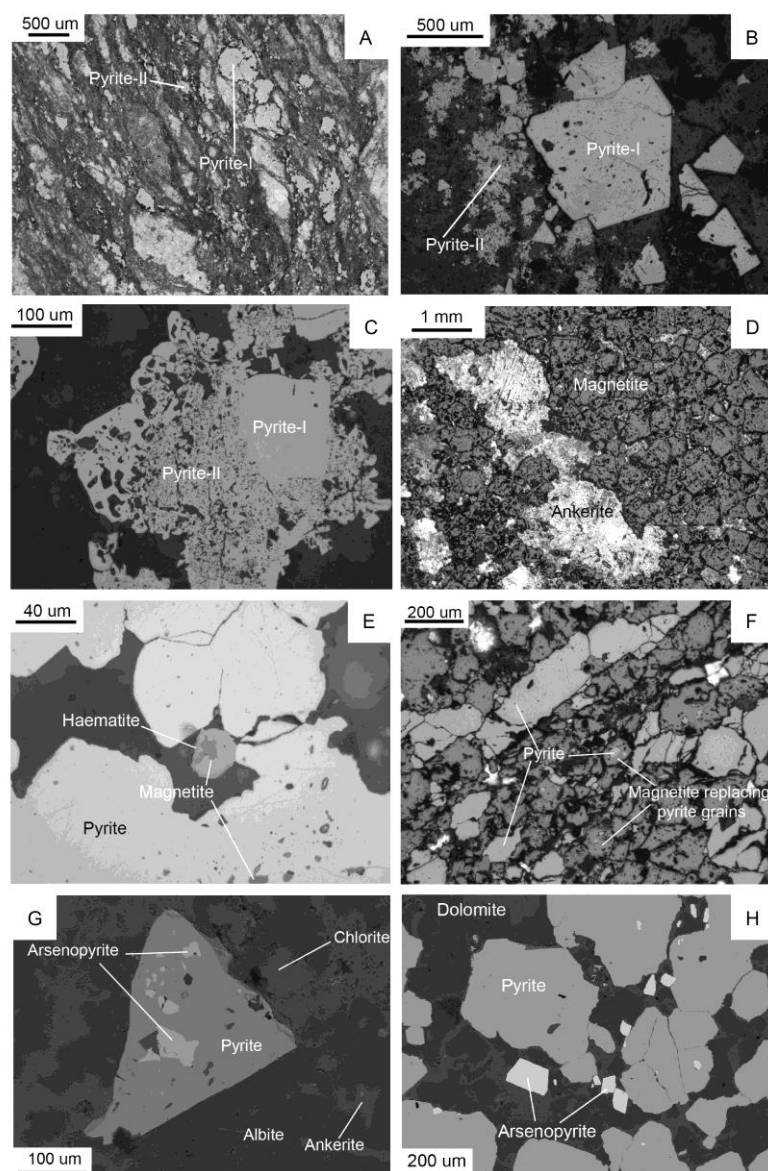


Fig. 5

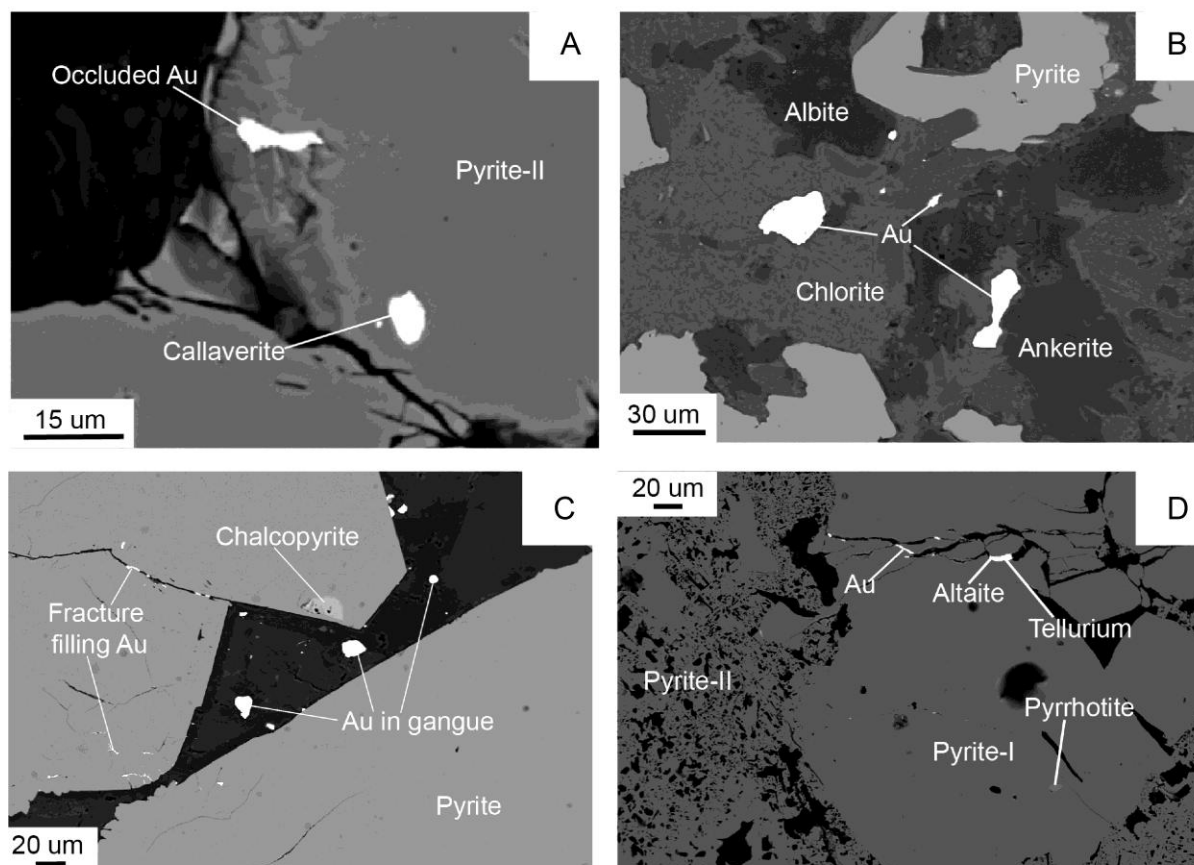


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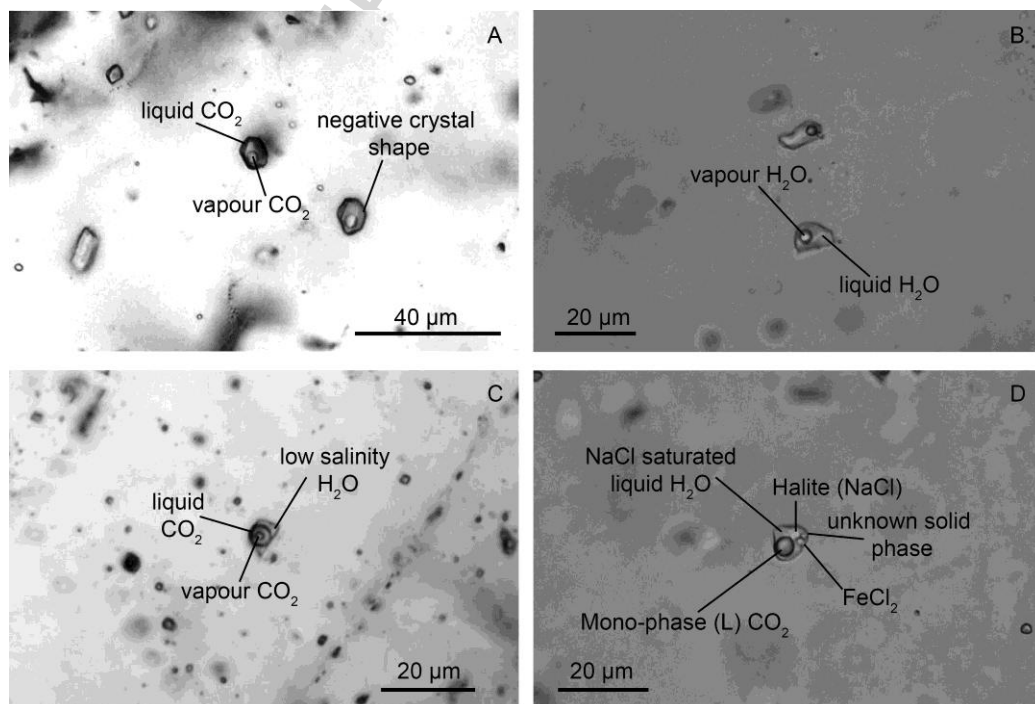


Fig. 7

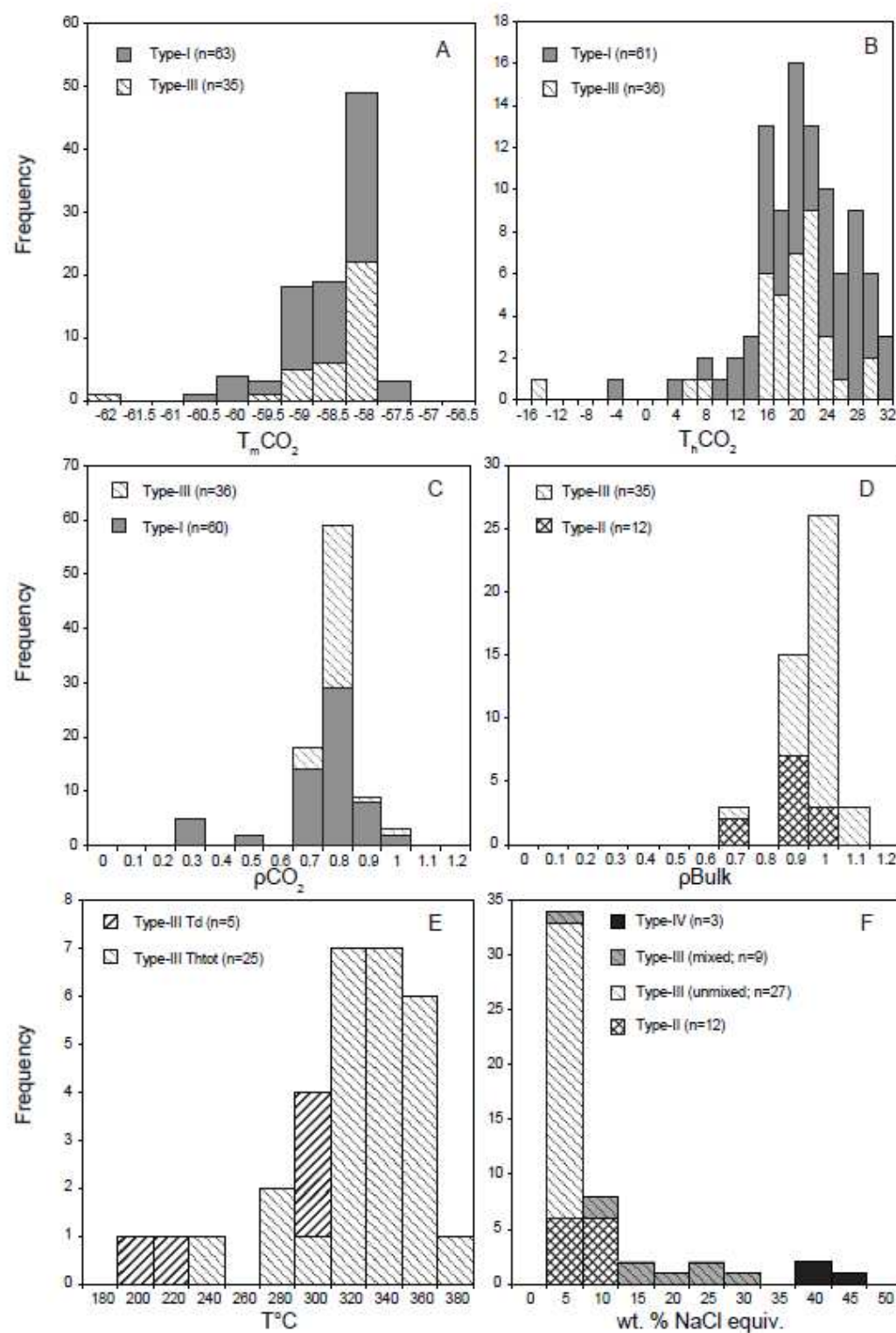


Fig. 8

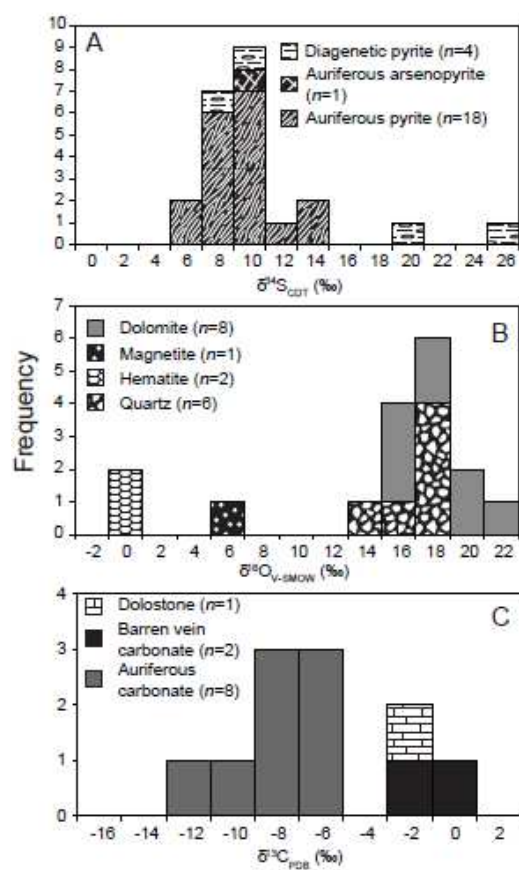


Fig. 9

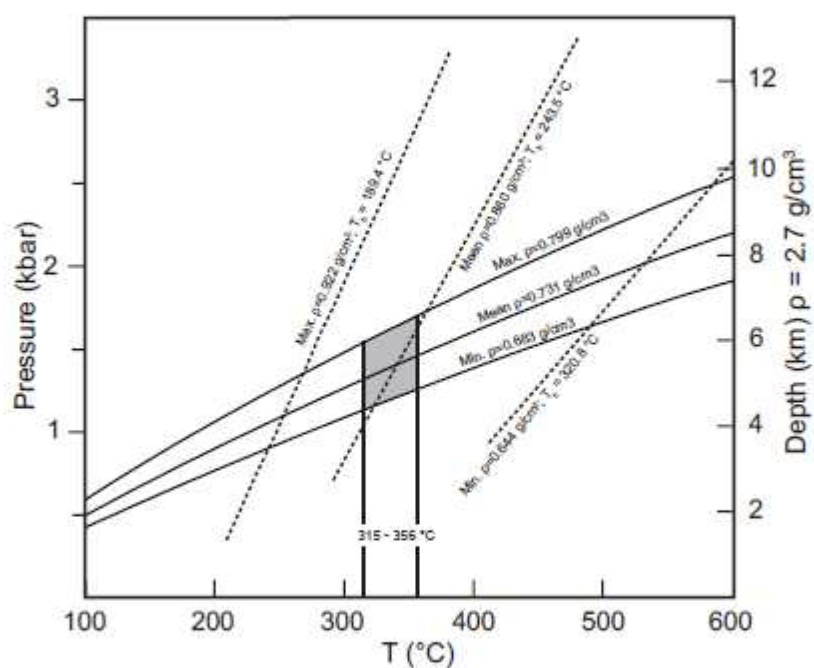


Fig. 10

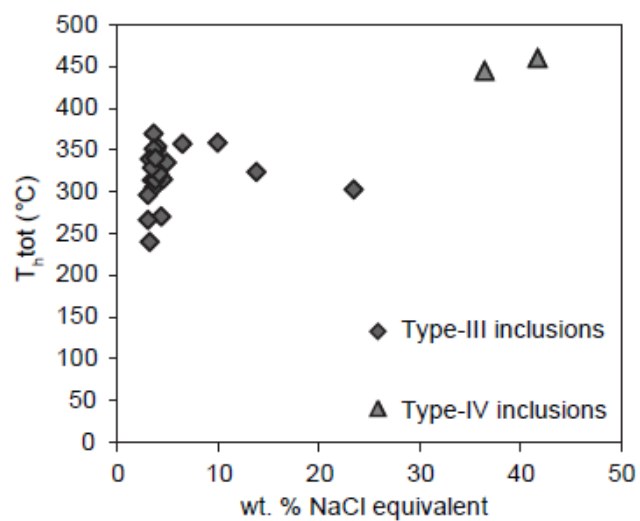
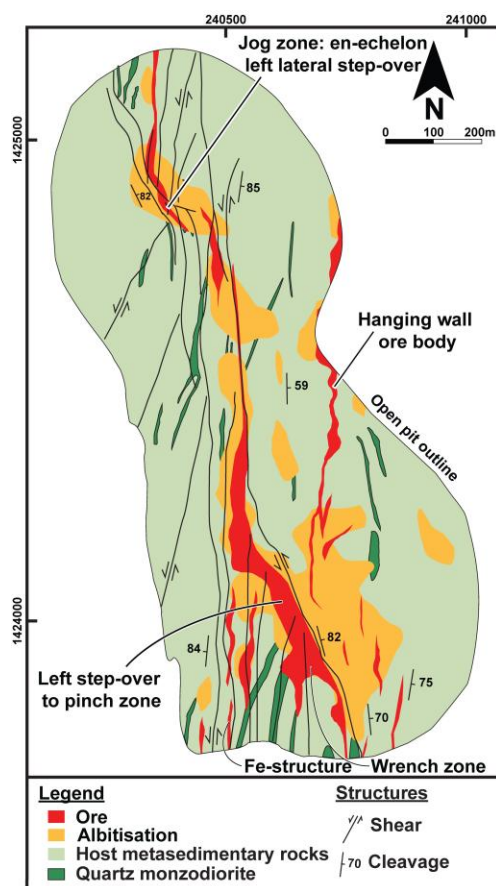
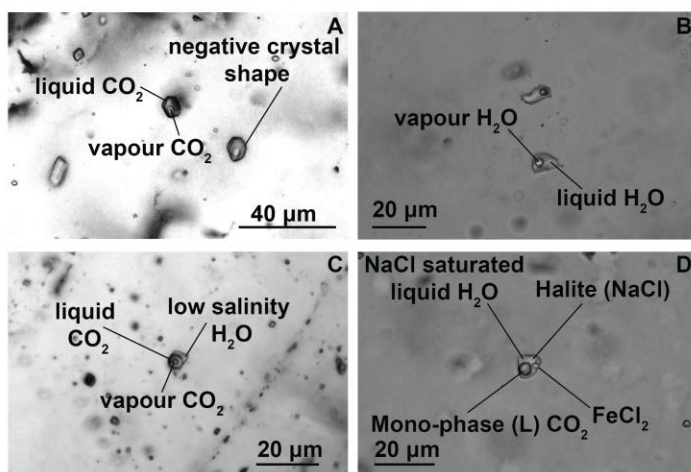


Fig. 11



**The Goukoto Au deposit,
Mali, West Africa**



Graphical abstract

Highlights

- The Goukoto ore body is characterised by sodic and phyllic alteration, As- and Fe-rich ore assemblages, with abundant magnetite, and overall enrichment in Fe-As-Cu-Au-Ag-W-Ni-Co-REE + minor Te-Pb-Se-Cd.
- Fluid inclusion assemblages indicate the presence of two hydrothermal fluids: (1) a moderate temperature (315-340 °C), low salinity (<10 wt. % NaCl equiv.), low density ($\leq 1 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}-\text{H}_2\text{S}\pm\text{N}_2-\text{CH}_4$ fluid; (2) a high temperature (up to 445 °C), hypersaline ($\sim 40 \text{ wt. \% NaCl equiv.}$), high density ($\sim 1.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$), $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2-\text{NaCl}\pm\text{FeCl}_2$ fluid.
- These two fluids mixed during ore formation, leading to enhanced phase separation and Au precipitation.
- Fluid inclusion analysis indicate that the Goukoto was formed at P-T conditions of approximately 1.4 kbar and 340 °C.
- Stable isotope analysis (O, C and S) suggests that ore forming components were derived from devolatilisation of sedimentary rocks during metamorphism.